DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 077 374 HE 004 171

AUTHOR	Sagen, H. Bradley; And Others
TITLE	New Approaches to Undergraduate Education.
INSTITUTION	American Association for Higher Education, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Oct 72
NOTE	28p.; Background papers prepared for the eight regional conferences sponsored by the Midwest Regional Council of the American Association for Higher Education, October 1972
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	*Career Education; Conference Reports; *Curriculum Development; *Degree Requirements; Educational Improvement; *Higher Education; *Student Centered Curriculum; Student Needs; Teaching Quality

ABSTRACT

This document presents background papers prepared for the eight regional conferences sponsored by the Midwest Regional Council of the American Association for Higher Education. Following an introductory paper concerning new approaches to undergraduate education, each paper examines a new approach. The approaches reviewed include time-shortened degrees, nontraditional study, developmental curriculum, self-selected and student designed curricula, education for new careers, contemporary courses and programs, evaluation and grading student performance, educational improvements within fiscal limits, and developing faculty competence. Availability of an extensive bibliography is indicated. (MJM)

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NEW APPROACHES TO UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

Background papers prepared for the eight regional conferences sponsored by the Midwest Regional Council of the American Association for Higher Education

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October, 1972

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Sept., 1972

NEW APPROACHES TO UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW

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Introduction

As Clark Kerr, among others has pointed out, higher education is in a period of great uncertainty--a "climacteric" so to speak. Seldom have fundamental goals, processes and forms of organization been subject to such conflict regarding present worth and future direction.

Undergraduate education is similarly uncertain about its future and is presently exploring a variety of new approaches. The most salient features of these reforms are their diversity and the fact that several involve quite basic changes in goals and structure. A third feature is that the proposed changes are neither haphazard nor lacking in conceptual justification. To facilitate discussion it may, thus, be helpful to identify several major themes which characterize the new approaches to undergraduate education.

Higher Education Responds

Many of the new developments in higher education have emerged in response to a variety of social forces. An admittedly incomplete list of these forces might include: rediscovery of the individual, the future of the job market, and the demand for social responsibility.

Rediscovery of the individual. For a variety of reasons, those attempting to restructure undergraduate education have abandoned the traditional terms, "liberal" and "general" education. Yet dominating the proposed reforms is a concern of liberal education, one perhaps abandoned in the post-sputnik era. That concern is, "what is a reasonably complete human being, and how can education assist each individual to develop his own full humanness?"

The outline of an answer as it appears in several of the papers is that what sets man apart from other species is not only those characteristics which he possesses in common with other men, but his capacity to be a unique human being, and in many ways to make his uniqueness a matter of choice. If one of man's most precious decisions is to choose what he might become, an education which seeks to achieve full humanness must involve each student in the selection of his own future direction of development. A personalized curriculum is thus a set of educational experiences selected and in many cases developed by the student in pursuit of a uniquely personal set of educational goals.

Concern for personalization has also expanded our conception of "humanness" to include a wide range of developmental goals which stress emotional and aesthetic growth as well as the acquisition of knowledge and the development of cognitive skills. Acceptance of these goals has in turn mandated an increased variety of educational experiences, many of which stress direct student involvement ("experiential education"), aesthetic expression, and contemporary concerns.

Higher education is also becoming aware of the increased pluralism of students and of the desire of youth to enrich the personal meaning of their lives. Black and ethnic studies and womens' studies only typify the concern for personal meaning which permeates the reform of undergraduate education.

The job market. From the end of World War II to the beginning of the 70's, higher education was part of an expanding economy in which college graduates without specific occupational competencies could easily find employment. The present job market, in contrast, appears to have reached a saturation point. Most new employment opportunities for college graduates will occur either in occupations now dominated by secondary school graduates; in positions created as a result of new technologies - e.g., computerization; and in expanded services such as health care. These "new careers" will often require more specific competencies, and may stress skill areas such as data processing, that are less related to traditional undergraduate subjects.

In a tight job market, career preparation is perhaps the typical student's most critical

concern. Unless education for a variety of careers can be coordinated with other reform "new approaches movement" may eventually collapse from lack of student support.

Social responsibility. Higher education is not simply a patronage relationship betw supporting society, the institution, and the individual student. A complex and interdepen society supports educational institutions, not only because of a commitment to the develo of the individual, but because the further development of important human resources is on best assurances that all members of society will have the opportunity to achieve their pe goals.

Undergraduate education must increasingly prepare students for "new" careers. It must help students as human beings and as citizens to cope with increasingly complex problems. the systematic knowledge found in the liberal arts will always play an important role in un graduate education, other competencies including decision-making, organizational, and inter- sonal skills must also be developed. Not all knowledge and competencies fit into disciplinar frames of reference, and inter-disciplinary problem and issue oriented courses will consti an increasing portion of the undergraduate experience.

Structural Reform - The Major Imperative

Another theme which characterizes curriculum reform at present concludes that educatio not improve significantly unless fundamental changes are made in the basic structure or orga zation of the curriculum and of the instructional process. In particular, current attempts structural reform have emphasized:

(1) Decision-making mechanisms. Within new curriculum structures such as individu lized programs of studies, essentially professional decisions regarding implementation of edu tional goals and the certification of competence are left to the faculty, but basic educati decisions regarding the aims of education are to be made by the client (student).

(2) The reward system. In the newer curriculum structures, both students and facul are held increasingly accountable for the attainment of goals which they set and for the cons quences of decisions they make. Emphasis on accountability requires new and improved forms o evaluation for both students and faculty.

(3) Individualized experiences. Personalization of goals will not accomplish its ultimate objective if the student is forced to select from among a narrow range of traditiona educational experiences. Devices such as the learning contract personalize instruction by extending the students' range of alternatives to an individualized set of goals and to appro- priate experiences and methods of evaluation. Non-traditional studies may further extend th learning contract by certifying a variety of experiences which upon analysis prove to be wort of academic credit; e.g., several years of "successful" experience in business and governmen

(4) Opportunities for innovation. Many of the criticisms of new approaches in educa tion are based on assumptions about what might occur as a consequence of innovation. Yet the critics have been generally unwilling to permit educational experimentation which would valid these criticisms. One of the most important reforms thus has been to create opportunities f experimentation through structural changes such as providing released time for innovation, cr tion of an experimental college, or adoption of the January Term with emphasis on innovative courses.

(5) Improved educational planning. Planning attempts to insure the optimum use of human and financial resources - resources which education can ill afford to waste. The comp ity of modern society, moveover, dictates that educational planning involve more than the summation of institutional plans. How well state and federal planning can maintain the neces sary institutional autonomy and flexibility, yet optimize the use of resources, will probabl influence the future of undergraduate education more than any other "new approach."

Sept., 1972

BACKGROUND NOTES: TIME-SHORTENED DEGREES

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Time-shortened degrees have been proposed and attempted at earlier points in American collegiate history, but the current debate stems clearly from the January, 1971 conclusion of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education that "the time spent on the way to the B.A. can be reduced now by one year for many, and subsequently most, students..."

What They Are Doing

Since that time, dozens of four-year institutions have undertaken to offer a time-shortened or three-year degree; hundreds of others have had to consider the move.

-- at San Francisco State, 1,300 entering freshmen last Fall were given CLEP area exams, enabling many to test out of part or all of their first-year work;

-- at St. Louis University, freshmen can earn up to 32 hours of credit through specified exams;

-- at Ripon, students maintaining heavier loads and higher GPA's may graduate in three years with 112 hours;

-- at Goucher, a heavier course load plus three January terms permits graduation in three years;

-- at Muskingum, the same objective is reached through regular semester loads in combination with January and summer work;

-- at Shimer, the emphasis is on early entrance, with 35-45% of entering students coming in after the third year of high school;

-- at SUNY Brockport, selected students will work individually in a program requiring just 90 hours for graduation;

-- at SUNY Albany, the approach will be to combine the 12th grade and collegiate first year;

-- at George Washington, students with top records apply, before the end of their first year, to graduate with 90 hours;

-- at Manhattanville, students and faculty consult after the second year to determine what remaining work there is to be done for the bachelor's degree.

Other examples abound, but a fair summary is that most schools have moved cautiously, using familiar elements: testing, heavier course loads, year-round scheduling. The emphasis has been on shortening time spans; few have made substantial changes in degree requirements or shortened graduation hours to 90 (as the "three year degree" label implies).

Some Reasons. . .

What impetus lies behind this remarkable movement? Virginia Smith of the Carnegie Commission staff lists the following educational considerations:

-- Many entering college students today are better prepared than ever before.

-- There is substantial duplication in much of the work given in the last two years of high school and the first two years of college.

-- There is nothing sacred about a four-year Bachelor of Arts degree or, indeed, about a three-year Bachelor of Arts degree or any other specified number of years for a Bachelor of Arts degree.

-- Increasingly today there is much learning which takes place outside the classroom.

-- Advanced technology makes independent study more possible than ever before.

-- Education should be throughout life and not just confined to a large concentrated block of time in a person's childhood and youth.

The Commission also explicitly attaches this recommendation to those it has made on cost effectiveness and curbing higher education costs. Pronouncements from a variety of public sources -- the governor of Pennsylvania, the Florida legislature, a commission of the Illinois Board of Higher Education, system officials in New York and California -- have made it plain that the faster "move through" of students promised by these programs is seen as a way of reining in on costs, notably of anticipated construction.

Private institutions have been equally quick to introduce time-shortened degrees. They e the same educational reasons. Many have also had an eye on the degree's potential for ruiting students ("save up to $4,000 on your total college costs").

. . And Arguments Against

The degree-in-three-years movement has now begun to draw criticism, most of it surfacing nin the past year. The following re concerns heard:

-- that it feeds upon "anti-schooling" sentiment and the lessened inclination of society d some student families to meet educational costs;

-- that it is but one of several historical attempts to diminish the time devoted to a mprehensive undergraduate experience, with general and interdisciplinary studies the likeliest ctims of time-shortening;

-- that, granted the arbitrariness of either a three or four-year time frame, values of eed, economy, and competitive edge are being juxtaposed to carry the field while questions of he meaning of a degree, the competencies it might certify, the purposes it serves, and the like relatively undiscussed;

-- that the emphasis on subject-matter coverage and testing by standardized instrument is gressive, solidifies worst aspects of the experience, and potentially could widen class lines thin the student population;

-- that, while many entrants are indeed better prepared, a larger number of "new entrants" xists which is not, and the latters' needs may not be best served by shortening the modal perience of higher education;

-- that the labor market may not be ready to accept a new influx of people leaving educa- n earlier;

-- that, for all but a handful of private institutions with larger constituencies, the ospect of one-fourth fewer students implies financial disaster;

-- that the three-year approach imperils the unique role of two-year colleges -- the logic that they offer that third year of instruction, perhaps doing it well, perhaps hurting some eceiving four-year institutions, perhaps detracting from their terminal-occupational function;

-- that, from the perspective of secondary school educators, drawing off the ablest stu- ts after the junior year leaves "too little to work with" in the senior.

. Matter for Discussion

Not each of the above need be of concern to policy makers; some reflect misinformation, ers self-interest. The fairest charge is that the matter has not fully been thought through. le student and societal needs are rightly put first in these equations, genuine questions of ucational policy seem to exist with respect to the totality of evidence on which the movement based, to the meaning of degrees, and to the fate of private and two-year colleges in the plied realignments.

The questioning of historic degree structures is a necessary development and cause for e in the better situations it can bring individual students. The apprehensions are real, too. a liberal arts dean put it, "This could all be great for our students and college. But if eryone rushes into it just to be first or so they're not left behind, it will be like a gas -- everyone winds up with less."

. Articles

"Growth of the 3-Year College," U.S. News & World Report, Jan. 17, 1972, pg. 21-2.

"Bachelor's Degree in Three Years Gaining Favor," Chronicle of Higher Education, Jan. 31, , pg. 1.

"The Three Year B.A.: Boon or Bust?" Kenneth R. Conklin, AAUP Bulletin, Spring, 19 2, .

"Baccalaureate Requirements: Attainments or Exposures?" John Harris, Educational Record , 1972, pg. 59.

Sept., 1972

NON-TRADITIONAL STUDY

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"Non-traditional" study is a virtually meaningless term to describe a very real phenomenon: what is conventional on one campus may be radical on another. A recent survey found that colleges and universities included everything from evening divisions to single courses in underwater photography and the sewing of stretch fabrics as "non-traditional" programs. But despite the ambiguity of the term, there is little disagreement with the facts:

institutions are awarding academic credit for knowledge and experience previously unaccreditable;
institutions are offering more programs off campus and by new media;
and institutions are creating programs for adults and other students beyond the typical 18-21 age group.

The most publicized of these new programs is the University Without Walls developed by the Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities, but this free-wheeling student-oriented program is not typical of the majority. Early in 1973 the Commission on Non-Traditional Study will be issuing its report and recommendations regarding non-traditional study; and its data will show that many new off-campus and adult programs are highly structured and prescribed curricula with an occupational orientation--not the student-designed, free-elective, avocational programs typically imagined to be "non-traditional study."

More and more institutions are awarding credit by examination for previous learning; some are awarding credit for experience such as Peace Corps service without additional examination; and many are considering one or another varieties of "external degrees"--degrees awarded on other bases than traditional residence requirements. As probably everyone knows, the New York Regents have launched the Regents External Degree program; and undoubtedly other states, the federal government, and regional agencies will consider similar credentialing services to allow non-students to gain academic credentials apart from college attendance. Moreover, some national "credit bank" eventually seems likely, where the attendance, examination scores, academic credits and even job experience of individuals can be kept on file to facilitate the award of degrees or other credentials.

While institutions are trying a number of technological media for their new programs, they most commonly are relying on field work and internships for out-of-class learning. Very few are developing home-study or correspondence programs.

And while many institutions are seeking ways of offering their traditional students more off-campus experience, a minority are developing unconventional programs for new and non-typical groups of students, including inmates in correctional institutions, the physically handicapped, ex-military personnel, and the retired.

Finally, the definition of what is academically "creditable" continues to expand. Having reached consensus in the 1920s and 30s that students could receive academic credit not only for the analysis of subject matter and of works of art but also for the creation of art, American colleges and universities are now reaching consensus that students may also receive credit for service as well as for analytic and creative activity: service to the community, to other individuals, and even to the institution itself--as through membership on student-faculty committees. And competence is coming to be seen as the primary basis for awarding academic degrees, regardless of the length of time spent in gaining this competence.

Prototypical of institutions which offer non-traditional studies as the center of the educational experience is Empire State College, the "non-residential" college of the State University of New York system. Empire State consists of "learning centers" in Albany,

New York City, Rochester, Long Island, and London, England. Each center is planned for about 500 students at a level of 400 FTE and 13 full-time teaching faculty supported by three administrators. These centers are "backed up" by a group of distinguished scholars at Saratoga Springs, among them Dr. Arthur Chickering, who develop learning modules to assist large numbers of students in broad academic areas.

At the heart of the program lie the basic "developmental" goals outlined by Chickering in his seminar "Education and Identity." Modules and student experiences are aimed to promote increasing awareness, developing competence, clarifying purposes, becoming autonomous, understanding oneself, understanding others, and developing integrity. These purposes are established immediately in one's contact with Empire State by means of an admission process which is virtually student self-selecting. After this point, learning contracts are established between a faculty person and the student. These contracts provide for action, reflection, study, evaluation in an area of student interest. Opportunities are built in for extensive field experiences.

Another non-traditional prototype is the Minnesota Metropolitan State College in Minneapolis. MMSC also stresses "student control over their own education" and the use of faculty in facilitating rather than imposing learning strategies. MMSC identifies itself as "an urban-oriented learning experience" which "maintains that its students should focus on the needs of the city and on learning how to live in a large urban area." Like Empire State College, MMSC seeks to promote developmental competencies. These are: basic learning and communication competence, civic competence, vocational competence, recreational competence, self-assessment competence. Like Empire State, the student clientele is not conceived as being limited to the 18-21 age bracket. Rather, both institutions insist on serving as a resource for students of all ages and backgrounds. Like Empire State, MMSC bases its learning certification on modules and "educational pact developments and implementations."

In summary, the "non-traditional study" movement is part of the continued integration of academic life with the total social life of America. Problems will be evident to institutions leading this movement--such as ways of best measuring and assuring competence and skills gained outside the classroom. And the movement causes problems for state regulatory and voluntary accrediting agencies--such as the erosion of the traditional distinction between academic institutions that grant degrees only for residential study and degree mills that grant them only for the price of the degree. But there is little doubt but that the movement towards offering more collegiate programs for non-typical students in non-campus locations and by non-classroom means will affect virtually every institution of higher education in the nation within the decade. For an introduction to the subject of "non-traditional" study, the articles in Samuel B. Gould and K. Patricia Cross, Explorations in Non-Traditional Study, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1972), are good background.

Sept., 1972

DEVELOPMENTAL CURRICULA

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Although research on the developmental pattern of human existence was begun long ago, probably with Robert White's Lives in Progress, it is only recently that people have recognized the possibilities of an undergraduate curriculum based on sound knowledge of human development. For reasons still obscure to me, most people in developmental psychology have assumed that growth, intellectual and physical, ends about age 18. There is virtually no theory which adequately covers adult development from 18 on. However, several studies lately (based on the work of Piaget, Kohlberg, and Maslow) have caught the attention of a variety of educational planners and curriculum developers. In addition, Chickering and Perry have both given very persuasive and insightful accounts of the kinds of developmental tasks that seem to be central to the college years. But whether these descriptive attributes can properly be called a "theory" (in the sense that Freud had a theory of human development) is highly debateable.

If one were to characterize the current interest in developmental curricula, one would need to say that its main concern, particularly with the freshman year, is in terms of developmental consequences of various kinds of educational experiences. A number of institutions now give a block of time to the freshman program. In some cases, they even offer a course module based on freshmen and a quotient of faculty who work with freshmen for the full period (often as long as a month). One objective is to get students beyond high-school-type requirements to more active and intellectually autonomous roles that many undergraduate institutions require. (For example, Eckerd College, formerly Florida Presbyterian, has very carefully worked out an introductory module as described herein.) Others have begun looking at very specific competencies which they wish developed in the freshman year. Sterling College, for example, has worked out a competency curriculum in which the courses and extra-class activities of the student add up to his way of reaching a series of competencies described as vital to the award of the degree by the institution.

Perhaps the most-widely-referred-to new development here is the learning contract as a curriculum device. At least 18 institutions now use learning contracts, to my knowledge, and there are probably others that are using the device or thinking of it. The learning contract requires the student to specify in some detail what it is that he wishes to attain during his collegiate career. His advisor then specifies what resources, courses, and facilities are available to accomplish these goals. They must agree on the nature of the evaluative process that will be effective for these specific goals, and both the student and the faculty advisor then sign the agreement as a contract. The contract has some particularly useful developmental implications. First, each contract should be a relatively unique document, thus taking fully into account what is known about the psychology of individual differences. The sequences of items in contracts can be reversed as the student gets into the projects. In addition, if both student and faculty member agree, contracts can be modified to take into account new information on the nature of the student and his growth and development.

Additionally, many institutions are moving toward greater interest in what could be called inquiry strategies of learning. Here the student is placed in settings in which he must inquire about the nature of some phenomenon, rather than having its essence explained to him by some authority. This also assumes that people in the 17-22 years old category are becoming more functionally autonomous and need to be told less and less while they are given more and more situations within which they can manifest their own interests and find out their own answers to problems.

Thus, in addition to the greater use of inquiry strategies, one could point to the increased number of "capstone courses," such as those mentioned by Daniel Bell in his book, The Reform of General Education. The capstone course typically occurs after a student has completed

his requirements for the major and is in a position to try to put together the various forms of learning he has encountered, both in class and during out-of-class experiences. It is too early to say how effective capstone courses will be. One worry is that the faculty will continue to teach them as if they were conventional lecture courses rather than allowing students to learn from each other, particularly if students in the capstone course come from various academic specialties.

Those institutions interested in developmental curricula also seem to have shifted the faculty role significantly away from the conventional teaching mode to the use of faculty as mentors, advisors, and consultants. This does not mean that they must necessarily play a passive role. Faculty at institutions like Ottawa University, New College at the University of Alabama, Eckerd College, Sterling College, the residential colleges at Michigan State, and Livingston College at Rutgers, all play rather active and vital roles even though they do not give as many lectures as they used to. At Empire State College, the faculty have become known officially as mentors, and they spend a great deal of their time writing individual contracts with individual students. This means that faculty must develop diagnostic skills in knowing where a student is, and what his deficiencies and strengths are. These skills are not skills which come easily to all faculty members, and one might suggest some fairly thorough training sessions if faculty are going to move into the notion of taking advising seriously as a part of their professional commitment.

There are also great differences in the susceptibility of a subject area to being treated developmentally. It is true that many areas of the natural sciences are accululative, meaning that knowledge gained in the freshman year necessarily precedes knowledge gained in the sophomore year, but the developmental curriculum notion assumes that patterns of students' psychological and intellectual development should form the basis of the curriculum, not patterns of subject matter hierarchy. It is sad, but true, that at the moment there is no adequate theory of student development that would enable an effective curriculum to be built around it, except a curriculum which has a million options so that no student can be destroyed in the process. But increasing the options is based partially on ignorance of the consequences of specific kinds of student exposure to certain kinds of educational situations. As we learn more, it may be that we can cut down some on the number of alternatives and guarantee perhaps a higher rate of student involvement with learning materials than is currently the case. In certain kinds of campus environments, students seem to develop in important and productive ways, even though the curriculum may be exactly similar to another institution in which, because of environmental differences, students do not seem to be pushed or pulled or focused. We have to learn a great deal more about college environments and their impact on students before we can truly start thinking about building specific developmental curricula for specific institutions.

Sept., 1972

SELF-SELECTED AND STUDENT-DESIGNED CURRICULA

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Many modern college students have articulated a desire for greater involvement in determining their undergraduate academic programs. Some are interested in opportunities to select patterns of existing courses that satisfy their individual needs, while others wish to specify broad areas of study or to actually participate in the design of specific course content. Some institutions have responded to these expressions and have established a collegial relationship among faculty and students in the task of curriculum building. The reactions of faculties to this trend have seemingly varied from enthusiastic endorsement to emphatic dismissal.

The freedom given to students in the shaping of curricula differs considerably from one institution to another. For instance, the newly-formed Empire State College in Saratoga, New York, offers students maximum freedom to tailor their curricula to their individual needs; while most institutions offer this freedom to students only after they have successfully completed a required core curriculum. Others restrict such opportunities to those who have demonstrated exceptional academic performance.

Some institutions have established separate organizational units for self-selected or student-designed programs. Institutions such as the University of Connecticut, the University of Alabama, and the University of Redlands, have set up separate colleges for this purpose. Other institutions (e.g. Ithaca College) have built a special program within a college, whereas others (e.g. Evergreen State College and New College in Florida, Chatham College) make such options available to all students. A few institutions (e.g. University of Iowa, University of Minnesota, Cornell College in Iowa) designate a special Bachelor of General Studies or Bachelor of Elected Studies degree for students completing their studies under such a plan.

Some of the innovative features of self-selected and student-designed programs are summarized as follows:

1. The Educational Contract: This system is reasonably familiar to the modern educator and the use of it is becoming popular. It forces the student to set down his educational objectives and, in consultation with faculty, he designs a study program to meet these objectives. Some institutions (e.g. Johnson College of the University of Redlands) establish guidelines to aid the student in formulating objectives, while others leave the student free to establish them on his own.

2. Evaluation: Traditional grading systems are sometimes abandoned in favor of written evaluations or critiques of the student's academic performance. A portfolio of the student's work is sometimes kept on file and this includes self-appraisals as well as the appraisals of his instructors.

3. Use of Non-Campus Resources: Several programs emphasize the need for the student to relate the academy to the community. In doing so, the student uses the local community as a laboratory for meaningful learning. Foreign travel and study abroad are also included as significant credit-earning undergraduate experiences.

4. Flexible Scheduling: The involvement of students in course designing often requires greater flexibility in scheduling. Some institutions have established an academic year made up of small three or five-week units to allow for short term courses.

5. Resource Materials: The traditional use of textbooks has, in some instances, given way to the use of periodicals, newspapers, tapes, records, closed-circuit television, and programmed learning texts.

In developing a rationale for the involvement of students in selecting and designing curricula, advocates of this approach hold that the student is ultimately responsible for his education---thus he should become actively involved in the planning of it. It is further argued that self-planned programs enhance the motivation for learning and give the student a greater sense of responsibility. The student then is more apt to develop an impetus for learning which will continue beyond his four years at college. Few adherents of this concept feel that it is the sole approach to undergraduate instruction, but they contend that it is a viable option worthy of educators' attention.

Suggested Readings

Berte, Neal R. (Ed) Innovations in Undergraduate Education. A report of a conference in January, 1972, which includes discussions of programs at the University of Wisconsin at Greenbay, University of Alabama, Florida Presbyterian, Rutgers University, Hampshire College, Antioch College, University of California at Santa Cruz, University Without Walls, State University of New York at Old Westbury, Bensalem College, and Ottawa University (Contact Neal Berte for copies).

Givens, Paul R. "Student-Designed Curricula," ERIC Current Research Reports, 1972. A summary of programs wherein students participate in selecting or designing their own curricula.

Walker, Charles U. Elements Involved in Academic Change, Association of American Colleges, Washington, D.C., 1972. A review by Frederick Ness, Charles Walker, J.B. Hefferlin, John Bevan, and Bradley Sagen on ways of effecting change.

EDUCATION FOR NEW CAREERS

Fred F. Harcleroad, President
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During 1972 career-related education became a household word. Career education, as advocated by the Federal government, begins in the elementary grades and continues throughout one's entire working life and into the retirement years. The objective of career education is to match the occupational requirements of society with the abilities and interests of people. Education for new careers, as it is used here, refers to the response to the changing needs of society as it is reflected in the post-secondary undergraduate curriculum.

Career-related undergraduate education is not new. In 1672, Harvard graduates were trained for a specific career, the ministry. In 1772, both Harvard and Yale trained students for a legal career. By 1872 the newly-founded land-grant colleges prepared students for careers in industry, agriculture and education. While the interest in education for a career is not new, however, the intensity of that interest is without precedent. The social unrest of recent years has resulted in a questioning of most of the traditional attitudes, values and patterns of behavior, including those related to education. The entire apparatus of higher education, in particular, has been subjected to attack. Faculty inflexibility, administrative indecisiveness and student rebellion led much of the public to question the purposes and value of higher education. The public questioning resulted in disillusionment when it was discovered that many of the graduates were unable to find jobs because the training of the students had little relationship to the real world. The paradox of large numbers of unemployed or underemployed existing side-by-side with urgent shortages of manpower in many fields served to focus attention on the higher education curriculum. It has become clear to most people that a four-year college degree is not a guarantee of economic or social happiness, and that educational opportunities must be broadened beyond those which have been traditionally available. The seriousness of the need is reflected in the fact that of the 28,000 different occupations listed by the U. S. Department of Labor, only 20% require a four-year college education.

The introduction of many new career-related educational programs is part of the response to this situation. Many, but by no means all, of these programs are in the service fields, such as health and government. They are presently offered at all types of institutions, including those which are public, private, two and four year. The variety of new programs is astonishing in vocational-technical schools. For example, preparation for work in environmental and leisure related fields has been introduced. Oregon Technical Institute has programs in air quality control and environmental sanitation. The Johnstown (Pennsylvania) Vo-Tech School trains golf course superintendents in its program in turf-grass technology.

Comprehensive community colleges have also introduced many new career-related programs. Triton College (Illinois) offers training in the operation of computer-run milling machines. Miami-Dade Community College (Florida), which began with five technical programs in 1960 now offers 83 occupational programs in vocational-technical, business and allied health fields. Included is an executive secretary-pilot program which combines flight training and secretarial service to prepare secretaries to fly executives to meetings, take notes, and then fly back to the home office. North Hennepin State Junior College (Minnesota) has a program leading to an occupation as an urban planning technician.

Perhaps most surprising, however, is that well over half of the public universities and state colleges offer two-year as well as four-year technical education programs. More than 200 of these institutions offer a total of 1,000 technical education programs, approximately one-half of them in programs of two years or less. Between 1967 and 1971 the number of programs and students enrolled in these programs increased approximately 80% in the two-year programs. In addition, 100 new programs were planned for the next three years, varying in length from one to four years. Bluefield State College (West Virginia) has a program in mining technology. Mississippi State College for Women has a major in fashion merchandising. Winona State College (Minnesota) transfers credits from vocational-technical schools to permit students with trade specialties to qualify for teaching in vo-tech schools.

The new career majors illustrate both the disillusionment with traditional higher education and what is being done to solve the problem. Vo-tech programs are currently adding one million students a year. In addition, enrollment in adult education programs increased 27% during the past year. Proprietary school enrollments are also increasing rapidly, currently estimated at one million students per year. At the same time, during the 1971-72 academic year, there were 700,000 vacancies in traditional colleges and universities.

The educational programs for new careers indicate an increased responsiveness by post-secondary institutions to the needs of society. They also reflect a greater awareness of the necessity of relating education to employment. The educational system is becoming more flexible. Education for new careers leads one to hope that the separatism which has existed between the education of the intellect and the rest of life may be broken down. One positive result of this development would be a cross fertilization through which all the life experience would be enriched.

It is unfortunate, however, that these changes within higher education were the result of a social and economic crisis. It is also regrettable that the response by many educators has been piecemeal. There has been limited analysis of the entire educational structure and how each of the component parts might assist in meeting the needs of society. The current response of higher education may be a case of far too little, much too late. One important outcome seems certain to be a major change in traditional forms of higher education.

The tide of public discontent against higher education has carried with it the impetus for education for new careers. The momentum which has been started is not likely to subside soon. We can anticipate that career education will become increasingly important in the next several years. A major incentive for developing career-related programs will almost certainly come from the authority of the Federal government to grant or withhold massive sums of money. Many institutions, especially vo-tech and proprietary institutions, community colleges and some four-year institutions will no doubt conclude that this is the wave of the future and move aggressively toward positions of leadership. Other colleges and universities will give lip-service and make some minor responses in order to participate in this aspect of Federal funding. Liberal arts colleges will have to decide whether they wish to participate in this new development at the risk of changing their basic institutional goals.

Several issues remain. Who determines the needs of society and students, and their relationship? With what criteria? How and where will they be met? Who pays? What role for state and Federal government? How will career education affect students, traditional disciplines, professions, and various types of institutions? Will the effects be beneficial or detrimental? Will general education disappear? What of the economic and non-material needs of students and society? These and other questions remain.

BLACK AND ETHNIC STUDIES

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One of the most potent forces shaping undergraduate education in the 1960's was the impact of Black Studies programs. These programs grew out of the need for a keener insight into perspectives related to Black History and Culture and are now fermenting development of Ethnic Studies programs in undergraduate education for the 1970's.

Ethnic students have served as the predominant force in developing resources and establishing a need on college campuses for ethnic studies. These students changed the course of undergraduate education by demonstrating the following needs to administrative personnel in higher education:

1. The need to organize and become a recognized agency in order to obtain financial assistance from the college or university.
2. The need to develop awareness in higher education for basic courses in ethnic studies.
3. The need to have more ethnic students on college campuses, which resulted in the implementation of Upward Bound and Transitional Year.
4. The necessity of dealing with institutional racism within higher education.
5. The need to develop homogeneous bodies combining ethnic community interests with ethnic campus interests.

Black Studies, which developed in a rapid manner in the late 1960's to satisfy the current demands, evolved through a trial and error method. It is still too early to decide the success or failure of many of these programs. The programs assisted students to see themselves in proper cultural and historical perspective and offered students essential tools to comprehend and understand the heritage of ethnic groups. Student exposure to ethnic studies was also transferred to other disciplines, resulting in these disciplines' setting up courses which lacked the necessary coordination. Professors also began to revise and reevaluate their own instructional presentations. But these programs cannot continue to develop as a piecemeal, jig saw puzzle nor can they operate on insufficient budgets. These programs must permeate the entire city or college, and top priority must be placed upon institutional procedures for developing and coordinating these programs.

It is essential that Ethnic Studies be a valid portion in the curriculum of institutions of higher education. It is imperative that the content of these courses be developed and organized utilizing a perspective in preparing students for participation in a society that is racially integrated.

The ideal Black and Ethnic Studies program should be more than a few superficial courses in history. Without question it should develop into a specialized curriculum which can take an interdisciplinary approach. It should also address itself to: assisting in student recruiting, admission policies, counseling (personal and academic), financial aids, the academic procedures(i.e. grades), research, and community education and involvement.

The instructor and ultimately his students must convey a realistic historical image to society. Through viewing an ethnic approach in these programs white students can also gain a healthier self-image by understanding the image of ethnic groups. Students must realize that it is wrong to deny any ethnic group its past history. It is equally wrong to cheat any students of the knowledge of this history.

Teaching from a Black or Ethnic perspective necessitates the development of innovative procedures which challenge traditional pedagogical assumptions. This perspective may vary where the classroom situation is all Black, White, Brown, or a combination. The teacher of Ethnic Studies should realize that the student may not be looking for the traditional approach in instruction. The student is looking for a means of understanding the cultural heritage of ethnic groups and for ways of applying knowledge of this heritage to the encounters he may face with ethnic groups in contemporary life.

Distinctions should be made in the type of curricula: African studies refers to studies of Africa--its history, culture, language, geography, economics, etc. Black Studies, or Afro-American Studies, may draw from the African background but it should primarily contain the Black American experience.

Undergraduate majors in Black or Ethnic Studies should have courses in established disciplines. When a student desires to major in Ethnic Studies he should be able to select subjects in an inter-disciplinary curricula for that program.

All students going through a college or university should be required to take an Ethnic Studies course. Textbooks should be discarded in favor of creative syllabi (produced often with student collaboration) and developed from living experiences. Experiments, discussions, audio-visual aids, special speakers, etc. should replace perpetual lectures.

The classroom must be exposed to ethnic communities and the problems related to these communities. Courses should be designed to give students off-campus experience in ethnic communities so that they can experience some of the phenomena treated in the classroom. And this should assist in providing information and data for urban research projects. Workshops can assist in developing educational material promoting ethnic understanding among educational administrators, teachers, and librarians.

Black and Ethnic Studies must explore and discover the underlying factors resulting in institutionalized racism. The courses should thus have an urban thrust, as this is where institutional racism exists. The inequalities found must be explored and alternative methods should be discussed in an attempt to analyze and deduce methods to eliminate them. Ethnic programs must speak to community needs, to those ethnics who get into the university, to the matriculation of these students, and to their future after leaving the university. Courses should develop the skills required to challenge and appraise contemporary life. Finally, all ethnic groups must develop the pride which is rightfully theirs.

Developing Ethnic Studies may be viewed like fixing a huge pot of stew. You cut up the carrots, which may be Black Studies, you dice the celery, which may be Chicano Studies, you slice up the potatoes, Judaic Studies, add onions, Indian Studies, add meat, studies of other ethnic groups, and mix all of these together. Then you allow the stew to simmer with adequate time for the seasonings, Psychology, Sociology, and Education to permeate the entire stew. The stew, if not overcooked, will have an excellent taste which will combine and contain all of the original ingredients and will serve as a viable undergraduate program for all students.

The future of Ethnic Studies programs lies in the innovativeness and creativeness of instructors and students, and the cooperative attitude demonstrated by administrative personnel. These facets, aided by community input, will aid in bringing about stronger undergraduate education.

NEW APPROACHES TO UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: WOMEN'S STUDIES

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One of the most visible indicators of an interest in women's studies has been the emergence of women's courses in higher education. Women's studies explores the nature of women through historical, literary, biological and psychological means. So courses in women's studies differ from traditional curriculum offerings including home economics and women's continuing education, since the content of women's courses is on or about, not for women.

There is some disparity in the estimated number of women's courses in existence. But there is no doubt that the courses have multiplied rapidly since 1970. By October, 1971, a list of over 700 women's courses representing 178 institutions had been compiled (Howe and Ahlum, eds., 1971).

From their inception the preponderance of women's courses were in the humanities and social sciences, the fields where the most women teachers are found traditionally. Over time, a number have emerged in the arts, sciences and professions. Typical course titles include: Women and the Law (Yale University); Social History of Women in America (Wheaton College); Sociology of Sex Differences (University of Washington); The Idea of Women in Philosophy (Towson State College); Image of Women in Art (Stanford University); Images of Women in Modern Literature (St. Joseph's College, Indiana); Economic Position of Women (Portland State University); and Women in Education (Cornell University).

Women's courses were started because of discontent with women's status as it is reflected today in the content of college courses. Feminists note the virtual absense of women in history, literature, art and other fields as taught. Or women are treated as peripheral, an appendix to the topic, or as exceptions to the norm. References to women in textbooks, card catalogs, and indexes reveal a scholarly tradition in which women are virtually invisible. Freeman (1971) comments on the fact that women have been omitted from such major research areas as "achievement motivation." In this case women were "excluded because their inclusion 'messed up the model,' and there was no curiosity as to why this was so." Lack of specific references to women would not be so bad if women were integrated into current materials. One quickly learns that references to "man" and "mankind" mean male. Thus, the current status of women in modern knowledge reflects a viewpoint which takes male supremacy for granted.

Probably the most controversial aspect with respect to women's courses hinges on differences in educational philosophy between women's studies advocates and critics. On one hand, critics argue that the courses are too ideological, indoctrinating, and radicalizing, and therefore are not scholarly and lack academic rigor. In response feminists reject the notion of "value-free scholarship." They hold that biases against women extend right down to the fundamental categories of analysis through which the scholar tries to understand and explain a phenomenon. Thus, women's studies scholars are challenging traditional scholarly methods and assumptions, and are searching for alternative approaches which would provide new information about women, challenge cultural assumptions and provide alternative ways of looking at women (Trecker, 1971).

Among women's courses both traditional and more innovative teaching approaches are found. Probably the most common innovation utilized in women's courses has been to present the materials from a multidisciplinary perspective. Team or group teaching is also common. In addition teachers of women's courses have sought to consciously break down the barrier between students and teachers. Efforts are made to create a nonauthoritarian, egalitarian atmosphere, to prevent the domination of discussion by either students or faculty, and to reduce competition in the classroom and foster cooperation.

Many who teach women's courses believe that academic learning and personal experience should be relevant to each other. In support of this educational philosophy, both personal

and experiential matters are fostered and encouraged. A number of devices are utilized to facilitate the combination of rationality and feeling. One frequently used technique is the personal or readings journal in which a student enters individual reactions to course content. Others have fostered openness and intimacy by opening the class to all interested parties, devoting portions of time to consciousness-raising, convening class around social occasions, such as meals, and breaking large lecture classes into smaller, more informal discussion groups.

Women's courses face a number of problems and issues. (1) Can women's studies be considered a distinct intellectual discipline? This is probably the most crucial unresolved issue at this time. One needed feature would be the development of a framework of analysis, perhaps a feminist approach. (2) Do women's colleges have special obligations to pursue women's studies? Some have adopted women's courses more readily than others. (3) What relation should women's studies have to other educational experiments and educational reform? Many instructors hope courses will contribute to women's increased self-esteem, more participation in new spheres of activities, raised career aspirations, and to the breakdown of field differentiation by sex. (4) Should men be encouraged to go into women's studies? Currently men are studying and teaching in the field. (5) What degrees should be offered? Right now Cambridge Goddard Graduate School for Social Change offers a MA in women's studies. Sarah Lawrence College started an individualized master's program in Women's History. Richmond College/CUNY and the University of Washington/Seattle offer a BA; Douglass College/Rutgers and San Francisco State University allow a major with emphasis on women.

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Sept., 1972

STUDENT INITIATED COURSES

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What's Happening?

Curricula are no longer immune to student influence. Student consumers are questioning the process and content of their education; when these fall short, some students work to change them. Student initiated and directed courses are a fact in every department, school, and professional area.

Documentation can be found on almost every campus. Reports from the chief academic officers at 132 colleges indicate that students initiate courses most often in these areas: Black Studies, Ethnic Studies, Social and Political Problems, and miscellaneous areas (Aesthetics of Environmental Art, Karate, Calculus for Non Science Majors).[1] Some other courses that students initiate are: liberation (gay, gray, mens, womens, kids), arts (dance, experimental theatre, creative and science fiction writing, drawing for the nonart major), business for the minibusinessman, film, organic gardening (it is quite common to see students farming campus land), winemaking, biofeedback, contemporary music (jazz, rock and roll, Jimi Hendrix, bluegrass), wilderness survival, encounter (leadership training, freshman disorientation, Black-White encounter, human development seminars), mysticism and the occult, religious courses (particularly eastern religions), counseling practicums, yoga, ecology, politics, as well as a host of interdisciplinary topics.

Student initiated courses: (1) stress active involvement and community service through team research projects, practicums, and internships; (2) require more independent study, less classroom presence; (3) focus on interdisciplinary problems; (4) involve community people as both teachers and students; and (5) de-emphasize prerequisites, credentialled competence, and minimize grading (usually based on pass/no pass basis).

How's It Happening?

Most student initiated courses become credit courses in an informal manner: one or two students talk with a receptive faculty member who agrees to sponsor the study. There are more formal mechanisms though. Shoenfeld lists six: student government, course and teacher evaluations, free universities, interim terms and special facilities (such as extra-departmental boards to approve experimental courses). Two programs designed by students to facilitate the initiation of more student conceived and run courses are SEARCH and SWOPSI.

SEARCH (Student Exploratory Actions Regarding Curricular Heterodoxy) was set up by students at the University of Oregon to provide a channel for student innovations and participation in curricular development. During the spring 1972 academic term, these students arranged over 50 new courses including: Community as Campus ("the theory of communities and their institutions, together with supervised field experience in voluntary projects"), Rock and Roll, Images of Women in Contemporary Literature, H.P. Lovecraft ("the concept of horror in the development of the style of the master of horror fantasy"), Marketing and Corporate Responsibility, and languages (Greek, Dutch, Persian, Czechoslovakian). Each course is sponsored by a faculty member of an academic department. The student staff, funded by an $11,000 yearly budget from the student government, helps students initiate courses, find faculty sponsors, and complete the necessary administrative details. In this way, students carry out ideas which might normally be lost in stifling red tape. Many courses initially started by SEARCH have become ongoing university courses.

SWOPSI (Stanford Workshops on Political and Social Issues) is a student run and directed program on the Stanford University campus. SWOPSI's courses are more focused than SEARCH's. They are interdisciplinary, problem-solving and research oriented. For example, some of the workshops offered this fall, 1972, are Peer Counseling Techniques, Community Information Systems for Poverty Areas, Fighting for Change in the Penal System, plus two courses on the

1. Janet Shoenfeld. Student Initiated Changes in the Academic Curriculum. 7/72.

University: The Nature and Effects of the Grading System at Stanford and a Student Task Force on Education at Stanford. Each course is sponsored by a Stanford University faculty member and given credit through SWOPSI. The "instructors" include students, and community workers. Twelve published reports have emanated from SWOPSI workshops so far, including "Air Pollution in the San Francisco Bay", which is 307 pages.

Where's It Lead?

Slots for student initiated courses usually exist within departments. They include open ended provisions for independent study, field work, practicums, seminars, or one-shot experimental courses. The stumbling block is not their mere provision; it is in knowing the system with its individual faculty members well enough to implement fresh ideas from all individuals, not only the most aggressive, in the community.

Some questions recur:

(1) What students initiate courses? Often vocational, "average", commuting, and working students do not express themselves well enough to effect new or different kinds of courses. How can they be heard?

(2) How many students want to direct their own learning? How can educators change the academic way station to the beginning spot for learning to understand and change complex lifelong problems? The active community involvement and team cooperation of student initiated courses is a start. The linking of learning to individual interests and ambitions rather than relying on standardized curricula is another way. The involvement of whole communities as both planners and resources contributes too. But all must be continuously worked on and amplified. The mere provision of course numbers and little-used mechanisms is not enough.

(3) What is germane university learning? Is there a difference between what is academic and what is educational? Is there a difference between student needs and student wants? How do you decide who decides?

(4) Student interests often wane. The crises of last spring which shut down the school becomes forgotten the next fall. If you're left holding the bag, what do you do?

(5) Student initiated courses usually fuzz up time tested (maybe just old?) categories of university order. Who can teach? Where do new things go? (Placement contributes to understanding...) How much control facilitates individual development and how much stifles it? How do you evaluate new course ideas?

(6) How important is process, students learning to lead their own lives productively in your own scheme of things?

Sept., 1972

FUTURISTIC STUDIES AND UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

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The enormous popularity of Toffler's Future Shock[1] attests to widespread popular interest in conjecture about future states of society. Concurrently, the planning professions are beginning to achieve some success in the refinement of methodologies for forecasting the futures of a variety of human and natural societies. As is the case with most emerging intellectual foci, there are a growing number of journals devoted to future study, a semi-developed body of literature, a World Future Society and an embryonic network of individuals who are gaining professional identity as futurists. Courses devoted specifically to future studies[2] have increased dramatically in number on American university campuses during the past several years.

Most of these courses, however, appear to be the brainchildren of individual faculty members rather than emerging from a general analysis of the curricular needs of undergraduate programs. Thus, they are often tenuous, "here today and gone tomorrow," depending upon the comings and goings of the faculty member. Even in their increasing numbers they touch only a tiny fraction of the undergraduates enrolled nationally. In many respects the study of the future seems to be stalled in a peripheral role, possessed of an exotic image beyond educational needs of most undergraduates.

Yet, I am convinced that this need not and should not be the case. Our quest should begin with an analysis of our hopes for the core experience of the typical undergraduate. Could, for example, a major objective be the liberation of the student from the limits of temporal provincialism? If so, future studies could be seen as humanistic and as essential as, say, historical studies. Unfortunately, the obstacles confronting the comprehensive introduction of future studies into an undergraduate program are formidable.

The first major hurdle is one of rationale. Objectives for current courses in future studies are ambigious and mixed. One outcome which should not take precedence is the actual and accurate prediction of the future. This is too great a task for beginners. The most important objective, as simple as it sounds, is first to convince students that there is a spectrum of possible future outcomes for all human and biological systems. Next, we should be interested in the development of skills for assessing possible alternative outcomes. Finally, as they study the future, students should realize that the probability of many of these futures actually occurring can be influenced and altered through strategic human intervention. The utilization of these skills and perspectives could create a "future consciousness" which might have the effect of dramatically restructuring the manner in which students view themselves and society. Who knows, perhaps the dominant student perspective might even become one of "creative possibility" rather than "alienated resignation." To this end we might begin to think of future studies as providing a detached "setting" in which personal and social tendencies might (in simulated fashion) be mentally disassembled and reconstructed in a number of alternative future contexts.

Operational difficulties, however, loom large. Serious engagement with futurist ideas requires depth skills in a number of areas. Too often, a lack of sophistication on the part of both students and faculty tends to float futuristic course work to a diletantish level. While the subject can be approached at an elementary level, all involved must appreciate the degree of knowledge required for any real depth analysis of future conditions. This includes not only knowledge of facts, but also historical awareness and intuitive insight into the social evolution of the case under consideration.

Another operational problem hinges upon the obvious fact that futuristics does not have the institutional base from which to move full blown into the center of the curriculum. Its

(1) Alvin Toffler, Future Shock, New York, Bantam, C. 1970.
(2) Billy Rojas while at the School of Education, University of Massachusetts, compiled several editions of a Future Studies Syllabus which contained descriptions of a number of futuristics courses in American Colleges and Universities.

development has been somewhat fashionable and much of its literature is speculative and scattered. More to the point, perhaps, is the fact that those who practice it are often "academic marginals." If not young and untenured (and sometimes radical) then they are many times perceived as being outside of the mainstream of what is considered "in vogue" in their discipline. Graduate schools, as a rule, do not produce futurists and universities, being departmentalized along disciplinary lines, expend little effort to hire them.

On the other hand, there seem to be a number of openings through which future studies may secure a more influential role in the general curriculum. The most obvious would be an effort to leaven courses in various disciplines with a futuristic perspective. An obvious difficulty is that we cannot depend upon this happening spontaneously and systematically on its own accord. Nevertheless, the future dimension is present in all disciplines and seems ripe for development. Another typically academic solution would be to create a department of "futures" and then add the subject to the list of distribution requirements. Being a foe of the distribution system, however, I hesitate to underwrite this recommendation.

The best hope probably resides in the development of a symbiotic relationship with the many problem-oriented courses and with the new programs which provide student generated options for topical majors. It seems to me that a central responsibility in problem centered teaching is to help the student develop both an historical and a future context in which to analyze his problem. This, I do not believe we have done well. Almost any problem that is worthy of analysis will have future manifestations. An awareness of these consequences seems an essential part of problem centered education.

To realize this potential educational value of future studies, however, faculty must cultivate a variety of relatively unique skills. Among these are a knowledge of and practice in a number of forecasting methodologies. The ability to attach probabilities to alternative futures is essential to good teaching as is the skill of assembling and organizing an adequate information base for projection purposes. Perhaps the underlying cognitive skill is to the capacity to think ecologically or systemically in order to comprehend the long-term consequences of interactions of all of the variables involved in prediction.

Since universities will probably not soon be into wholesale employment of futurists, how might we extend these futuristic skills to a wide range of faculty members? In a time when we are experiencing a growing interest in teaching and an uneasiness about the meaning of most faculty publication, it might be possible to convince many problem-oriented faculty to invest in the development of futuristic skills. If faculty reward systems can be altered to commend versatility and additions of new skills to compliment basic competencies, then a series of funded, future studies summer workshops and other such communicative and educative devices might have an impact on large-scale faculty development of the future perspective.[3]

In my judgement, a large number of faculty in any institution possessing and employing futuristic competencies along with their basic area of interest would have a vital impact upon the students in the best traditions of humanistic education.

In lieu of presenting an exhaustive bibliography, I would suggest to those interested The Futurist, the journal of the World Future Society of Washington, D.C. The Futurist deals with a variety of issues including the progress of future studies at all levels of education. In addition, there is a useful and up-to-date survey of relevant literature.

(3) I would be interested in corresponding with anyone having a further interest in this "continuing education" in future studies.

Sept., 1972

NEW APPROACHES TO THE EVALUATION AND GRADING OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

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Evaluation and grading are often confused. While grading, or the formal reporting of student performance, cannot occur unless preceded by evaluation, evaluation can and often does occur independently of grading. Evaluation is essential to effective teaching; grading is not.

Evaluation of student performance includes all the activities faculty members engage in that help them form judgments about how well their students are performing. When faculty members observe and make mental notes of the quality of the questions students ask, the perceptiveness shown in class discussions, or the students' responses to lectures, discussions, and suggested learning activities, they are evaluating student performance. Reading student papers, correcting student quizzes or examinations, and judging the merit of any student product are more formal kinds of evaluation activity. To be most useful, some form of evaluation, whether formal or informal, should occur early enough and often enough to let its results influence the later activities of students and instructor. Unless this opportunity for influencing instruction is provided, evaluation loses much of its usefulness.

Communication of the results of any evaluative procedure to the students is necessary if they are to make use of them. This communication can be formal or informal, oral or written, highly systematic or relatively casual. To be most effective, it should be explicit, refer to specific aspects of a student's work, and indicate the particular qualities or elements of the student's work that entered the instructor's judgment. Written comments or notations on student papers or examinations and oral discussions with students about specific products they have completed are probably the most effective ways to communicate evaluative information to students. Reports of overall judgments at the mid-point or end of a term are not so effective because of their lack of a specific referent. They give the student relatively little that he can act on to improve his learning.

The point of view implicit in the preceding paragraphs is that the primary purpose of evaluation is to improve students' performance. An alternative view of evaluation sees its primary function to be the relative ranking of student performance for later advancement and selection of students to higher educational levels or to jobs. Adherence to this second view inhibits performance of the first function of evaluation, since the processes that most effectively lead to student ranking are not those that most effectively aid student learning. One of the major problems with evaluation in higher education is that it is directed more often to ranking students with respect to overall performance or grading, than to giving the students information they can use to improve their learning.

If some form of evaluation and its communication to students are carried out at reasonably frequent intervals during a term, the summary evaluation at the end will convey little new information to the students. It will be of major interest only to other educational agencies or potential employers that were not involved in the educational activities that brought the student to his present level of performance. Therefore grading--the summary reporting of a student's level of performance in a highly condensed symbolic form--serves selecting agencies rather than educational agencies. Whether educational agencies should commit substantial amounts of their resources to help selecting agencies accomplish their purposes is an inadequately examined issue.

The most significant development in grading is the growing practice of abandoning failing grades. Failing to accomplish the minimum requirements for successfully completing a course he has taken may indicate something about the learning capabilities of a student. But an agency interested in selecting students for certain presumed capabilities should be concerned with the courses a student has passed. The courses he failed are only a little more informative

than the courses he didn't take. An increasing number of colleges and universities, therefore, no longer assign failing grades but simply remove a failed course from the list of courses on a student's record. Progress, graduation, and the transcript refer only to courses successfully passed.

Several variations of the above grading system are in use. One variation, in use at Stanford University, gives students an option of being graded with respect to one or three levels of satisfactory performance--either Pass or A,B, or C. Typically, students elect the ABC system in courses in their major field and limit the number of Pass grades on their transcripts with respect both to total number and academic field. In either case, courses taken but not passed do not appear on the student's transcript. Other variations limit the optional use of Pass grades or offer only the Pass-No-Record form. Still others retain the courses not passed on the student's record but do not count them in the student's grade average.

The other most significant departure from the traditional five-letter grading system is the use of descriptive comments to indicate not only the level but the qualitative nature of student performance. Its major drawback is the greatly increased time required for faculty members to write individual comments as compared with the time to record a one-letter grade. The argument that the evaluation system required for descriptive comments must be more elaborate than that for letter grades is not defensible. Any set of evaluation procedures adequate to classify students into four or five levels of performance must be capable of providing information that can usefully and concisely be expressed in several sentences.

The current tendency to expand the educational setting beyond the college classroom into various community agencies and other settings for off-campus, pre-enrollment or non-institutional educational experiences--e.g., Peace Corps, Vista, work experiences, internships, travel--is introducing new requirements and new techniques for evaluation. Increasingly, opportunities are being provided for college credit to be awarded without grades except Pass or Satisfactory on the basis of successful completion of a prescribed experience. A political science major, for example, may spend a semester or two working with the city council. Preliminary preparation by the supervising faculty member primes the student for certain kinds of experiences and assures that the desired experiences will be available. Periodic observation and review of the student's log or journal of his activities constitute the evaluative procedures. They are of secondary importance, however, to the development of a set of experiences that can be presumed in advance to be educationally valuable. The observations and supervision assist in guiding the educational process and assure that it is being entered into honestly by the student. If the educational experience is soundly planned, indication of its completion is the only summary grade necessary.

Sept., 1972

IMPROVING EDUCATION WITHIN FISCAL LIMITS

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Setting Priorities

It is probably more difficult to improve education even without fiscal limitations than we generally concede, and it is exceedingly difficult to do it within fiscal limits--especially when these may be contracting. One possible advantage when limits are set is that the importance of setting priorities receives the attention it deserves. Without limitations, an institution often simply does many things--some good, some less so.

How does an institution determine its priorities? Who participates in this determination? How can the courage to act responsibly on priorities be engendered? When establishing priorities, are all programs of the institution under surveillance or only prospective ones? Are the long range economic consequences of a program considered as well as the short range consequences? (A "successful" program can be more disastrous than an unsuccessful one if inadequately anticipated.)

Interinstitutional Cooperation

The notion that large savings lie in store for the institution that is willing to cooperate with any other institutions is widely credentialled--among foundations, federal agencies, and institutions themselves. Many institutions enter into a consortium with this aim only to be disappointed.

What are the areas--probably limited--in which institutions can actually save money through cooperation? What things can be done better through cooperation (with no saving of money) than can be done singly? How can the apparent tendency not to do things thoroughly in many consortia be guarded against? If institutional autonomy were not sacred, what kinds of improvement in educational programs--together with possible savings--might be brought about?

Programming, Planning, and Budgeting

PPB at once attracts and frightens. It seems to promise the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow; but seems to require a level or expertise unattainable by the Defense Department, let alone a small college. The notion of systematic planning, however, with identifiable objectives, although difficult is within the range of any institution.

Can institutional goals be translated into objectives that can be measured in quantifiable terms? Can alternative programs to achieve these objectives be identified? Can the resources required for these programs be estimated? Can the benefits from each program alternative be estimated? (If they can, and if you can act on the information, you can do the essence of PPB.)

Methods of Instruction

Methods of instruction seem to be determined more by faculty preference and whim than by any convincing ideas about the nature of human learning. The hams like large lecture sections; the sensuous prefer T-groups.

If both academic and economic consequences were taken seriously, what kinds of educat[illegible] experiences would be undertaken under close (and costly) supervision; and what experiences c[illegible] be handled equally well in larger (or technologically aided) settings? What combinations o[illegible] small, medium, and large groupings (independent study, seminar, large lecture, for instance) might exist for each student without greatly sacrificing the intimacy of contact between teacher and learner?

Sept., 1972

DEVELOPING FACULTY COMPETENCE

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Pressures upon the faculty these days come from a number of different directions, from students, the public, administrators pressed by the public, financial exigency, and social crises. Few faculty members can go along as scholars and teachers in old, familiar ways. The public has taken up the national administration's cry for "accountability," and in one way and another asks the professors for results. Administrators, caught between the public and the students, have a strong tendency to seek quantitative measures both of faculty productivity and faculty competence. Over everyone in higher education hang the general effects of recent setbacks in the national economy. At the same time, social crises demand a greater involvement of the college and university in the world off-campus. Many faculty are under pressure to restructure their disciplines so as to place more emphasis upon studies and teaching which confront social realities.

The situation sketched in this brief preface says a number of things about faculty development. First, since faculty development has been one-sided and undervalued in the period of relative affluence just past, it is not likely to get vastly greater attention in the future. Second, faculty members will feel more pressure for developing a varied competence, both because current conditions call for this kind of competence, and because job insecurity and anxiety are likely to increase with a surplus of applicants in the academic market. Third, there is some chance that graduate schools and graduate programs within individual departments will respond to the above conditions and do more to develop varied competence in the graduate preparation of college and university teachers. Finally, despite the pessimism of these speculations, I think there are things that can be done to improve the development of first-rate faculty members for the undergraduate college. The rest of my sketchy remarks will amplify these four points.

1. Faculty development as it exists: too little and too late. There is very little in the vast literature of higher education that deals directly with faculty development. The bibliography at the end of my monograph, Career Development of the Effective College Teacher, has about 150 items but only a handful of these deal directly and thoroughly with the development of faculty competence throughout a career. Lacking a solid basis for theorizing about faculty development, practical efforts have been piecemeal, traditional, and weighted toward support of research or scholarly competence. In an informal survey conducted by the Project to Improve College Teaching, faculty members from 142 different institutions were overwhelmingly negative in response to the question: My institution (does, does not) have an effective faculty development system. The conclusion I reach is that effective faculty development support will not come into being unless faculty members work very energetically both with and against administrations to get it. To this end, I offer these suggestions:

a. Faculty should gain a voice in institutional budgeting at the top level. Only then is faculty development likely to gain what it needs: a definite percentage of the general university or college budget.

b. Institutional support of research is only a partial means of faculty development and may even work against the development of effective undergraduate teachers. Such support might better be administered as faculty development funds, part of which might go to research, part to teaching, part to meeting the changing conditions affecting scholarship and teaching.

c. In negotiations with administrations, through collective bargaining or other means, specific measures for faculty development---leaves, grants, financial support---should be fought for as vigorously as salaries and working conditions.

d. The reward system should be challenged to move it toward more equitable treatment of the total and varied competence expected of faculty members.

2. The changing character of college teaching and scholarship calls for the flexibility in a faculty development system which would meet individual needs. A number of efforts have come to my attention which seem to promise results:

a. Grants in support of specific proposals to improve teaching. The state of Oregon has an excellent grants program, funded by the state Board of Higher Education, and making grants to faculty members in all of the state supported schools ranging from a few hundred dollars to $20,000.

b. Creation of campus centers for teaching. The University of Michigan Center for Teaching and Learning is one of the best established, but centers of this kind exist at Cornell University, Northwestern, Redlands, U.C. at Santa Barbara, and elsewhere.

c. The position of Undergraduate Dean has begun to appear. Stanford, University of Kentucky, Oregon State, Brigham Young have created such positions recently. The undergraduate dean's office could become an effective center for development of a superior faculty.

d. Creation of "university" professorships with special responsibilities for undergraduate teaching. Ohio University, Athens, has such a program.

3. There are some signs that graduate schools may be thinking more broadly and wisely about faculty development in the M.A. and doctoral programs. The Carnegie Corporation has already financed a dozen Doctor of Arts programs. Nevitt Sanford, through the Wright Institute, has begun a comprehensive look at graduate education which may be as influential as his study of the American college. A consequential re-examination of graduate education may thus be in the making. Such a thrust could not help but effect faculty development in the most formative period of a faculty member's career. Most importantly, colleges should make graduate schools aware of the kind of faculty members they need.

One last note. Faculty members have an opportunity rising out of the general demand for accountability which often takes the form of faculty evaluation. Faculty development should be insisted upon as an integral part of any evaluation process. Rather than fighting the idea of evaluation, faculty members might embrace it, see that it is well done, and insist upon its being accompanied by an effective system of faculty development.

Bibliography

An extensive bibliography is to be found in Kenneth Eble, Career Development of the Effective College Teacher, published by the Project to Improve College Teaching and currently available for $1.00 from AAUP, Suite 500, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

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